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A Continuing Priority by Oveta Culp Hobby

SECRETARY OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARD

The President called attention to certain of the problems facing American education in his State of the Union Message.

Among these problems are the need for more teachers and for additional school buildings to keep pace with our rapidly growing population.

In his message the President reallirmed the principle, traditional in our national life, that the control and direction of public education is a local and State responsibility.

The two education bills introduced Monday (January 13), by Senator H. Alexander Smith of New Jersey embody two of the Administration's proposals in the field of education.

The President's recommendation, calling for a series of State conferences on education, to be followed by a national conference, represents that concept transformed into affirmative action.

These State conferences, with assistance in planning and financing by the Federal Government, would bring together professional educators and other citizens, and would provide the basis for the White House Conference on Education.

The White House Conference on Education would review and utilize the results of these State meetings, concentrating on the national implications of educational problems.

In addition to these proposals of the President, there are plans for continuous attention to be given fundamental educational problems at the national level.

It is proposed that nine leading citizens, with 3-year overlapping terms, be appointed to serve in an advisory capacity to the Secretary of the Department of Health. Education, and Welfare. This group, to be known as the National Advisory Committee on Education, would meet at least 3 times a year. It would consider educational problems of begad national scope and would recommend the study of such problems by task forces.

The Committee would make specific recommendations to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, on the basis of the reports of these task forces, and from time to time would advise her as to the progress being made on its recommendations. The Commissioner of Education would serve as an ex officio nonvoting member of the Advisory Committee.

These proposals are important steps to be taken in a farreaching program for the improvement of American education. They would make the fullest possible use of local and State resources, buttressed by the best information that can be supplied from well-organized and available research. They recognize that to meet America's educational problems there must be systematic and sustained effort. (Continued on page 66)

School * Life

Official Journal of the Office of Education
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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The cover photograph, taken at the Virus Research Laboratory, School of Medicine of the University of Pittsburgh, shows roller drums used to incubate culture tubes for the propagation of the polio virus. For story see page 69.

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of feaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

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From the

President's Messages



STATE OF THE UNION

"Youth—our greatest resource—is being seriously neglected in a vital respect. The Nation as a whole is not preparing teachers or building schools fast enough to keep up with the increase in our population.

"The preparation of teachers as, indeed, the control and direction of public education policy, is a state and local responsibility. However, the Federal Government should stand ready to assist States which demonstrably cannot provide sufficient school buildings. In order to appraise the needs, I hope that this year a conference on education will be held in each State, culminating in a national conference. From these conferences on education, every level of government—from the Federal Government to each local school board—should gain the information with which to attack this serious problem."

BUDGET

Education and General Research

"The citizen in a democracy has the opportunity and the obligation to participate constructively in the affairs of his community and his Nation. To the extent that the educational system provides our citizens with the opportunity for study and learning, the wiser will their decisions be, and the more they can contribute to our way of life.

"I do not underestimate the difficulties facing the States and communities in attempting to solve the problems created by the great increase in the number of children of school age, the shortage of qualified teachers, and the overcrowding of classrooms. The effort to overcome these difficulties strains the taxable resources of many communities. At the same time, I do not accept the simple remedy of Federal intervention.

"It is my intention to call a national conference on education, composed of educators and interested citizens, to be held after preparatory conferences in the States. This conference will study the facts about the Nation's educational problems and recommend sensible solutions. We can then proceed with confidence on a constructive and effective long-range program. Pending the outcome of these conferences and the development of our educational program, the Federal Government is providing assistance to those communities where school needs have been greatly increased by the activities of the Federal Government.

"Budget expenditures for education and general research activities in the fiscal year 1955 are estimated at 223 million dollars. This figure does not include amounts spent for education and research in connection with the military, veterans', atomic energy, and certain other programs—which are classified in other sections of the budget. * * * * *

"Sixty-two percent of the expenditures for education and general research in the fiscal year 1955 will be for grants to those local school districts that have been burdened by Federal activities. Another 13 percent will be for grants to States to help support their vocational education programs and their land-grant colleges. The Federal Government also assists Howard University and educational institutions for the deaf and blind, and it maintains major library and museum services at the National Capital. Expenditures shown for general-purpose research are for programs of the Census Bureau, the National Bureau of Standards, and the National Science Foundation.

"Promotion of education.—Responsibility for education in the United States belongs to the State and local governments. The Federal Government has for many years provided financial assistance for land-grant colleges and some other educational activities. The Office of Education also disseminates information on educational trends and good practices. In recent years, the problems of education have been increasing in severity while this service has been reduced. My budget recommendations provide for an expansion of this basic activity.

"The proposed national conference and preparatory State Conferences will be most important steps toward obtaining effective nationwide recognition of these problems and toward recommending the best solutions and remedies. I recommend

immediate enactment of the authorizing legislation and appropriations so that preparations for the individual State conferences as well as the national conference can begin at once.

"Within the appropriation recommended for the Office of Education in this budget is provision to expand the studies and consultations through which it promotes better practices in education. One problem to which particular attention will be given is the meager education received by children of migrant agricultural workers. Because these children move with their parents from State to State, the problem of providing for their education can be solved only through special effort on a cooperative interstate basis.

"In addition, I recommend that legislation be enacted which will enable the Office of Education to join its resources with those of State and local agencies, universities, and other educational organizations for the conduct of cooperative research, surveys, and demonstration projects. Legislation is necessary to make this cooperative effort effective.

"An advisory committee on education in the Office of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare should be established by law. This recommendation carries forward an objective of the reorganization plan under which the Department was created last year. This committee, composed of lay citizens, would identify educational problems of national concern to be studied by the Office of Education or by experts outside the Government, and would advise on action needed in the light of these studies.

"For these new activities directed toward the improvement and strengthening of our basic educational services, I am including 300,000 dollars in the 1955 budget and recommending a 1954 supplemental appropriation of 2 million dollars.

"The last session of the Congress enacted legislation to extend temporarily the laws under which assistance has been provided to local school districts burdened by Federal activities, and to improve the original laws so that they will provide the aid economically and to the areas most acutely affected. As a result of these improvements, the recommended appropriation of 59 million dollars for school-operating assistance in the fiscal year 1955 is 14 million dollars below the amount for 1954. This assistance is provided to more than 2,000 school dis-

tricts, with enrollments of almost 5 million children, of whom almost 1 million qualify for assistance because their presence is related to Federal activities.

"The appropriation of 40 million dollars for school construction recommended for 1955, together with the 1954 appropriation of 70 million dollars, will provide for the most urgent classroom needs of the school districts eligible for this aid under the extended program. These funds are being used to help build almost 5,000 classrooms to serve 140,000 children.

"Aid to special groups.—A construction program now under way at Howard University will provide facilities for double the enrollment in the schools of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and related health fields. This budget includes funds for the construction of the preclinical medical building, the last unit necessary to make this expanded enrollment possible. Although the university is not limited to any group, it serves as an important center of higher education for Negroes. The expanded enrollment, therefore, will help to alleviate the shortage of doctors, particularly Negro doctors.

"Enrollment at the Columbia Institution for the Deaf has been increasing in recent years. Steps now being taken to enable the college to reach an accredited status in the near future include the provision of additional teachers and funds for the construction of a library-classroom building. One-third the cost of this building is being provided by contributions, primarily from former students.

"General research.—The National Science Foundation was created by the Congress in recognition of the need to formulate an adequate scientific research policy for the Nation. It is now engaged in intensive studies to that end, and is giving particular attention to the size and composition of the research activities of the Federal Government,

"The Congress, at its last session, amended the basic act of the Foundation, removing the ceiling on appropriations to this agency in order to permit steps toward increasing the responsibility of the Foundation for the general-purpose basic research of the Federal Government. Approximately one-half of the 6-million-dollar increase I am recommending in the appropriation for the Foundation for the fiscal year 1955 is in reality a transfer of the responsibility

and the financing for certain basic research programs from the Department of Defense to the National Science Foundation. The remainder of the increase is needed to expand basic research.

"Within the appropriation for the National Bureau of Standards, there is also provision for an increase in basic research.

"Additional basic research is needed to build up the fund of knowledge on which will be based the development of new crops for agriculture, new methods of safeguarding health, new tools for industry, and new weapons. A further important result is the training which basic research projects provide for graduate students in our universities. The number of trained scientists graduating each year falls short of the needs of our growing economy and is still declining. Enlargement of the research program and the related fellowship program will help counteract this trend.

"Funds are requested for the fiscal year 1955 to permit the Census Bureau to conduct a sample census of agriculture. This census will provide essential data for current needs."

"College housing.—Under the Housing Act of 1950, the Housing Administrator makes direct loans repayable over 40 years to finance student and faculty housing at colleges and universities. Net expenditures for such loans in 1955 will rise to 58 million dollars, largely under commitments made in prior years. By June 30, 1955, over 200 loans will have been approved. These will finance construction of housing accommodations for about 50,000 students and faculty members. Wherever possible, private financing of these loans will be encouraged."

A Continuing Priority

(Continued from page 2 cover)

The proposals of the President were made with the deep conviction that the problems of the Nation's schools can and will be solved cooperatively by the local community, the State, and the Federal Government. The Federal Government must come into the picture only where the national interest requires national leadership and action.

In the words of President Eisenhower, I agree that "Our schools—all our schools
* * must have a continuing priority in our concern for community and national welfare."

Better Education for All Our Children

by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems

DUCATION has been a major factor in making America a great Nation. Education has made its people critical, inquiring, and resourceful. Since the pioneers provided publicly supported schools in Massachusetts in 1647, Americans' thirst for education has never been quenched. It spread quickly to all national and ethnic groups who came to our shores.

This thirst for knowledge still existsperhaps more strongly in some of our minority groups than in the population at large. This intellectual desire was symbolized for me last year when I visited a stimulating book exhibit, to observe National Book Week. Hundreds of new volumes for children and adolescents filled the exhibit racks. Book jackets of cowboy, Indian, nature, rocket, and science fiction were as gay and thrilling as a circus parade. Children from the public schools were avidly scanning the contents of these books. There were no chairs in the exhibit rooms because book exhibits were everywhere. Therefore, everyone was standing while looking through the books. As I put a book back in place, one bright-eyed boy rushed up to me with a book titled "Rockets to the Moon" and said. "Say, mister, do you know where I can sit down so I can read this book through to the end?"

Since this incident I have wondered what will happen to this boy—and thousands like him. Will his teachers, parents, and other adults stimulate and enlarge his interests in science? Will they encourage him to stay in high school and make sacrifices of time and money so that he can study engineering or science in college? Today America has a serious shortage of engineers and scientists. As soon as atomic energy is more widely used for peacetime purposes, the demand for scientists and engineers will increase tremendously—not only in America but throughout the world.

This article is an adaptation of an address originally made by Dr. Reed before the Annual Convention of Alpha Kappa Sorority at St. Louis, Missouri, December 27, 1953. Because of the length of the address, it will be presented in two parts for School Lifereaders. This is the first part of his interesting presentation.

We are aware of the fact that in the midtwentieth century our national safety and liberty-and perhaps our survival-will depend to a large degree upon an educated citizenry. We no longer outnumber our enemies. We cannot afford to plow under any brainpower-instead we must cultivate it so that its fruits will contribute to the good of all. Yet the statistics show that the numbers of students who are dropped from the rolls of elementary and secondary schools are large. Office of Education statistics show that of every 1,000 children enrolled in the fifth grade in 1942-43, only 505 were graduated from high school in 1949-50. National commissions have estimated that 50 percent or more of the gifted children born in families of below average income do not attend institutions of higher learning, and it is needless to point out here that as many gifted children are found among the low-income groups as among any others. One local research study (by Helen B. Goetsch) found that only 20 percent of the superior high school graduates from lower-income groups were attending

This problem of drop-outs cuts across all national and ethnic groups—although we know that it is especially severe among certain minority groups. Several years ago, the Office of Education worked with representatives of State and local school systems on the problem "Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School, and What Can We Do

About It?" As a result of work conferences, the bulletin *Improving School Holding Power: Some Research Proposals* was published in 1951 by the Office of Education. Since then hundreds of schools in this country have studied the number of drop-outs, the reasons for students' dropping out, and ways to improve educational programs.

Report of Study

One of these studies was reported this year by Dillard University, New Orleans. La., in a publication called Holding Power and the Secondary School. It is part of a principals' research program called "The High School in the Changing Social Order: A Five-Year Study of Problems and Opportunities Confronting Negro Youth." The schools in the study were located in 9 Southern States and included a total of 10,903 ninth-grade students for the school year 1951-52. During that year a total of 588 students withdrew from school involuntarily: and a total of 771 dropped out voluntarily. Involuntary withdrawals included youth who moved, were drafted, died, or whose whereabouts was unknown. Voluntary withdrawals included boys and girls who got jobs, enlisted, married, or withdrew because of their inability to adjust in school. Thus, there was a total of 1.359 voluntary and involuntary withdrawals out of a beginning ninth-grade enrollment of less than 11,000. Reasons for this high rate of drop-outs were analyzed for clues to curriculum revision. The analysis suggested these basic problems: (1) How can the ninth-grade program be vitalized so youth will want to remain in school? (2) How can teachers be made sensitive to needs of boys and girls in a changing society? (3) How can the school help underprivileged youth to feel secure and adjusted

so they will want to remain in school? (4) What responsibility does the school have in helping youth to seek part-time employment so they may remain in school? (5) What can the school do to prepare youth for a prolonged period of military activity requiring their induction? (6) How can the school reduce the cost of a high school education to youth?

Experimental Solutions

After identifying their problems, the principals worked out practical, experimental solutions. They are particularly interesting to me because they are related to a recent conference of 25 educational leaders held in the Office of Education on the subject of major problems and movements in American education. The purpose of the conference was to identify major problems of education across the nation, to analyze major movements and trends in education, and to discover the principles and forces that bring about educational improvement.

First and foremost in their discussion was this principle: In order to improve the education of children we must involve in the process the persons who are to be affected by the change which leads to improvement. In other words, if we want a good community school-one which will serve the families in the community-we must involve the people in school activities. The bulletin Holding Power and the Secondary School, shows how this principle of involvement can be implemented in respect to drop-outs. It shows the importance of parent-teacher cooperation, of home visits of teachers having absentees, and of good human relations among the administration, pupil, and family.

Community Responsibility

As you know, education under our government is primarily the responsibility of local communities, subject to legislative control by the State concerned. We want this freedom for our local schools. It permits differences, variations, experimentation, and growth. Villages, towns, and cities in America vary tremendously in many respects, such as quality of family life, social cooperativeness, public spirit, and financial resources. Schools also vary greatly in many ways such as type of housing, faculty, instructional matreials, and

most important-quality of instruction.

In my present position, and as a former State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Nebraska, I have visited hundreds of schools—both here and abroad. One thing stands out in my mind: the quality and effectiveness of an elementary or high school are based primarily on the willingness of the citizens—and not just the parents—in the community to inform themselves about what their school is trying to do, how it is carrying on, and the results it is producing. This interest in the local schools by our citizens must include representatives from all income levels and all vocational and professional groups.

I know of one small nation with meager natural resources where the people have developed community schools which have enriched—both materially and spiritually the whole population. I can think of another nation, rich in silver and other natural resources, where the people have not had as a primary goal the development of a forward looking education program. Their standard of living is among the lowest in the world. Also, I can think of many schools in America which have added to the income and happiness of the total community because the people sought the values of education. They were willing to work with the board of education, the superintendent, the principal, the teachers, and students in order to make the school program better. These people were not carping critics but hardy helpers!

Some Exceptions

Although there are exceptions, urban communities with low-level incomes frequently have more difficulty in enlisting general cooperation from adults than other types of communities. Also, communities having minority groups of one type or other often find an unwillingness or a reticence of these groups to participate in community action programs. This reticence to help is not a selfish attitude. Instead it is frequently based on a feeling of insecurity or inadequacy because the problem situation is strange and unfamiliar. All of us have had similar reactions in new situations.

Those of you who are teaching, or have taught, know how difficult it is to reach the parents of the failing or delinquent child. They don't visit the school, they don't want to talk with the teacher, and sometimes they don't want their adolescent boys and girls to be in school. These are the parents who need help in orienting themselves to the values of education, the aims of our schools, and the subject areas available to their children. Also, they need to become involved in helping to make their schools better. When these persons, and the critics of the schools, become involved, they frequently are astounded by the magnitude of the problems and work hardest to overcome them.

Progress Stressed

The contributions which the American people have made and are making to educational progress was stressed last summer by the late Dr. Lee M. Thurston, then Commissioner of Education. He stated that individual citizens and those people who are members of such organizations as parentteacher associations and lay citizen groups should be credited with the tremendous progress being made in American education. To quote Dr. Thurston: "PTA's throughout the country now have 7,953,000 members. This is double their membership of 1946. Also today in 8,000 communities there are lay citizen committees working on educational problems with local school boards and administrators. In 1950, there were fewer than 1,000 lay citizen groups of this kind known to the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools."

(To be concluded in the next issue)

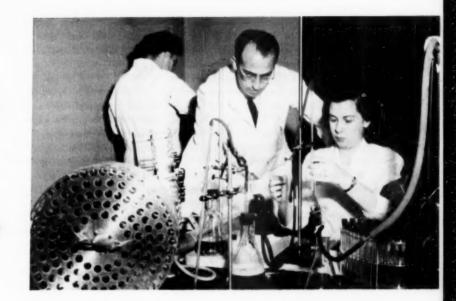
High Tribute to Teachers

"No group in society has contributed more to America than those who give their lives to the cause of education. It is about time we do public honor to the teaching profession. They get too little recognition. Too often they get unjust criticism."

CHIEF JUSTICE EARL WARREN, U. S. Supreme Court, before the George Washington University Alumni, National Press Club, Washington, D. C.

Polio Vaccine Tests in the Schools

In the Hope of Ending Polio



by Hart E. Van Riper, M. D.,

Medical Director of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, in charge of the polio vaccine tests

N THE coming weeks schools in some 200 communities of the country will take part in a scientific project unique in the annals of medicine. The purpose is to test on school children the effectiveness of a vaccine in preventing the paralysis that frequently results after infection with poliomyelitis virus. Prospects are bright that this trial vaccine may become the answer to polio control.

The vaccine was developed by Dr. Jonas E. Salk of the University of Pittsburgh. under a grant from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis (March of Dimes). It has already been tested for safety and effectiveness, first in studies with laboratory animals and then with nearly 700 individuals. The inoculation of another 5,000 children and adults in the Pittsburgh area will be completed by Dr. Salk before the mass trials with hundreds of thousands of school children begin. The trials will start in late March or early April and will be completed by June 1, 1954, before the usual rise in polio incidence. Results will not be known until sometime in 1955.

The field trials and inoculations will be conducted by State, county, and community health officials for the National Foundation, with the cooperation of school officials and volunteer workers in the areas involved. Local physicians, volunteering through county medical societies, will administer the inoculations, assisted by nurses volunteering in a similar manner. The test areas, not yet announced, are being selected upon recommendation of the individual State health officers, based on scientific criteria.

Only children in the first, second, and third grades will take part, upon the written request of their parents. This group falls within the age bracket most susceptible to polio. Not all of these children will receive the vaccine; many will serve as controls. In some schools first-, second-, and thirdgrade children will be inoculated, but only half of them with the trial vaccine. The other 50 percent will receive an innocuous fluid, similar in appearance but completely ineffective. In this way polio incidence in the two groups can be compared after the epidemic season in the summer and fall is over. No one at the trials will know which substance each child receives. Careful records will be kept on each child, but the code will not be broken until scientists are ready to begin the evaluation.

In other areas, only second-grade children will be inoculated, and they will receive the trial polio vaccine. However, incidence records will be kept on all three grades, so that children in the first and third grades may serve as controls. It can then be determined whether children who received the vaccine actually were protected when polio came to their neighborhood and they were exposed to the virus.

All three types of the polio virus are used in making the trial vaccine. The virus is grown in tissue cultures of monkey kidney, killed by exposure to formalin, and prepared in a watery solution. For maximum protection, three injections of 1 cc. each are necessary. The first two doses are given a week apart, the third booster dose 4 weeks after the second. Both for the benefit of the children and for the accuracy of the tests, it is especially important that every child in the injected groups receive all three doses.

Although the safety of the vaccine has been clearly demonstrated in preliminary studies by Dr. Salk, each batch used in the mass trials will be subjected to three rigid safety tests. The tests will be performed by Dr. Salk's laboratory at the University of Pittsburgh, by the commercial manufacturer, and by the Laboratory of Biologics Control of the National Institutes of Health, a branch of the Public Health Service, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

It has been shown that the vaccine can

stimulate the production of antibodies in the blood serum which are specific against all three types of polio virus, indicating active immunity against paralytic polio. If the virus can be stopped in the blood-stream before it penetrates to the central nervous system, paralysis may be prevented. Sufficient level of antibodies, thus produced, should make an individual resistant to the paralytic effects of polio for a long period. Whether the vaccine is highly effective, moderately effective, or ineffective will be proved conclusively through the forthcoming mass tests with children.

Most of the virus for the vaccine is being grown at the Connaught Medical Research Laboratories of the University of Toronto, where the tissue-culture process has been studied since 1949 under a grant from the National Foundation. Five leading pharmaceutical companies are currently producing the vaccine on a nonprofit basis for the tests only. The National Foundation has allocated \$7,500,000 in March of Dimes funds for the operation. There will be no cost to parents of children participating in the trials.

Dr. Thomas Francis, Jr., chairman of the Department of Epidemiology in the University of Michigan School of Public Health and one of the nation's leading authorities on epidemics, will direct an independent evaluation study of the trials, financed by a National Foundation grant. An evaluation center will be established at the University of Michigan, and the University's Survey Research Center will assist in collecting data and preparing statistical analyses.

In the meantime, everyone must wait with patience for the results of the tests, The situation will not be very much changed in 1954. Again we shall have to turn to stopgap measures to stem the rise of polio incidence. There will be at least three times as much gamma globulin available this summer as last, largely through March of Dimes purchases amounting to \$19,000,-000. While the 1954 method of allocation has not vet been announced, GG will undoubtedly be used for mass prophylaxis in communities where an epidemic appears imminent. It must be remembered that GG is only a temporary preventive and can be expected to be effective only when administered at the right time and in the right

Even with increased amounts, there will

not be enough GG to protect everyone. Parents must rely again on the precautions which have been advocated every year when polio comes: Keep children away from crowds and new contacts; avoid fatigue and chilling; keep clean; report symptoms of illness promptly to your doctor.

If these tests to prove that immunization against polio is possible are to be completely successful, they must have the cooperation of the whole community. Thorough orientation of school administrators and teachers in the facts about the vaccine trials will go far toward convincing parents of the safety and importance of this great scientific project. Nor can the educational experience for the children be discounted. Even very young children can understand something about this effort—on a community basis—to free them from a dreaded disease.

The help of the schools is especially needed in carrying on the educational phase of the operation. Special materials will be provided for the information and instruction of parents and the community, and for the use of the teacher in the classroom. Local chapters of the National Foundation will organize volunteer assistants to help with the tests and to give out information. Their services will be available to the schools.

Flash Reviews -of New Office of Education Publications

These publications are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

MATHEMATICS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, by Kenneth E. Brown, Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 5, 47 pages— 20 cents—discusses such questions as:

Are enough pupils taking mathematics in high school so our national supply of scientists and engineers can continue to increase? Are there as many pupils enrolled in mathematics in the secondary public schools as there were ten years ago? What mathematics, if any, is required of the pupils in the public high schools? Are field trips a major part of the work in mathematics in the present curriculum?

HOW CHILDREN LEARN TO WRITE, by Helen K. Mackintosh and Wilhelmina Hill, Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 2, 24 pages—15 cents—shows that the development of written expression is a continuous process which has a simple beginning with young children. During each year of their elementary school lives, children add new skills and further develop those they already possess. In this bulletin the illustrations stress the close relationship of spelling, handwriting, and the expression of ideas in written form.

This new publication discusses six of the most important questions that teachers and parents ask about how children learn to express themselves in writing.

This is another in a series of bulletins on the place of subjects in the elementary school curriculum. The overall publication, The Place of Subjects in the Curriculum, Bulletin 1949, No. 12, showed how subject matter is introduced into the program in a modern school. As a follow-up, a series of bulletins was planned with six in that series now completed. They are How Children Use Arithmetic, Bulletin 1951, No. 7: How Children Learn About Human Rights, Bulletin 1951, No. 9; How Children Learn To Think, Bulletin 1951, No. 10: How Children Learn To Read, Bulletin 1952, No. 7: How Children and Teacher Work Together, Bulletin 1952, No. 14; and How Children Learn To Write. All bulletins in the series are 15 cents each.

HOME, SCHOOL, AND COMMUNITY EXPERIENCES IN THE HOMEMAKING PROGRAM, by Druzilla Kent, Margaret Alexander, and Mary Laxson, Office of Education Vocational Division Bulletin No. 252, Home Economics Education Series No. 29, 69 pages, 1953—25 ccnts—was prepared to show teachers some ways that learning experiences carried on at school, in the home, and in the community can be integrated into a total program focused on overall homemaking education goals.

Building a close relationship between school experiences and home experiences has been a characteristic part of homemaking instruction ever since Federal funds were first made available for the development of vocational education programs in homemaking.

Preparation for home and family living is more and more being considered one of the important goals of education in the modern school.

Safety in Pupil Transportation

by E. Glenn Featherston, Director, Administration of State and Local School Systems Branch

SAFEGUARDING the child has been one of the primary considerations in pupil transportation since it was first provided at public expense approximately 80 years ago. In the days when the horse and wagon traveled roads relatively free of motor traffic the safety measures that were needed were fairly simple. A sturdy vehicle with some protection against the weather, a gentle team, and a responsible neighbor constituted most of the safety precautions a half or three-quarters of a century ago. Even 25 years ago school busses did not find it necessary to combat such traffic and travel such distances as are common today. We now use more than 130,000 vehicles to transport more than 8,000,000 children to and from school daily. Many of these vehicles may travel from 40 to 100 miles in a day. They may carry as many as 100 to 150 children sometime during the day. They often travel on heavily loaded transcontinental highways or almost equally heavily traveled State roads. They are out in all kinds of weather and at all times of the day. Safety of the transported child is much more complicated than ever before. and it challenges the best thinking of State and local school administrators.

Many things about the transportation program contribute to its safety. On a few of these we have made great progress; on others some progress has been made; and on still others progress is very slow. Providing a safe vehicle is one important step toward safe transportation. There are two aspects of the problem of providing a safe vehicle. The first is the procurement of a vehicle which meets reasonable construction standards, and the second is maintaining this vehicle in a safe operating condition. On the first probably more progress has been made than on any single aspect of pupil transportation. In 1939 a national conference consisting of representatives of the 48 State departments of education and consultants met for a week and developed recommendations on national standards for school, busses. Subsequent national conferences met in 1945 and 1948 to revise these recommendations in the light of ex-

perience and new technical developments in the automotive industry. A fourth such conference is now planned for 1954. These recommendations, of course, do not have the force of law until they are adopted by the States. However, approximately 44 States have adopted regulations which are in substantial agreement with or exceed those recommended by the national conference, and the other 4 States recommended them. The machinery for enforcing these regulations ranges from very little in some States to the requirement that the vehicle pass inspection before it is put in service in other States. The problem of obtaining a safe vehicle is no longer a major one.

The task of satisfactorily maintaining school busses is one which cannot well be dramatized by a national conference or any other such device. It is just a day-by-day never-ending job. Some States have cooperatively developed standards for and procedures of maintenance; they have had statewide meetings; they have given courses of instruction; and they have continuously supplied consultative service. Even with all this encouragement there are in most States some rather poor programs of maintenance. By and large, those States which have local units large enough to operate fleets of 15 to 100 busses usually have fairly effective maintenance programs. It is in those which have units operating from 1 to 5 busses that preventive maintenance is least frequently found in effective operation. Some States have attempted to see that busses are kept in safe operating condition by requiring annual or semiannual official inspection. While such inspections undoubtedly have a beneficial effect, they do not and cannot replace regular and thorough maintenance inspections. Since preventive maintenance has an economic as well as a safety aspect, it is difficult to see why it should not receive more emphasis at both State and local levels.

A second aspect of pupil transportation which has a close relation to safety is that of operating procedures. This probably requires less in the way of national action than school bus standards. However, some

operating practices require uniform application in all States. The recommendation of a stop law was one of the actions of the 1948 National Conference on Pupil Transportation. This stop law was subsequently incorporated as a part of the Uniform Vehicle Code developed by a national committee. This recommendation was enacted into law in substantially the recommended form by 40 States, and some variation of it has been enacted by the other 8 States. However, further uniformity is needed in the type, location, and use of signaling devices and in the handling of children before they board busses or after they have alighted from them. These points must be studied and agreements should be reached at future national conferences. Perhaps other related points must receive similar attention,

A capable, well-trained and conscientious school bus driver is by long odds the best insurance against school bus accidents. Of course, there are accidents which no driver could have avoided, but there are also many which might have been foreseen by an alert driver. Good school bus drivers do not just happen. They do not happen in many cases even after they have been systematically sought. There are many obstacles to be overcome. One of the chief ones is low pay for part-time work. This will always be present to some degree, but careful planning usually makes it possible to use some full-time employees for this service. However, many States and local units have not done all that can be done to obtain fairly able and competent drivers under present conditions. Several things can be

First, the process for selecting school bus drivers should be as systematic as that for selecting other employees of the school system. In some local units it may still be a patronage job. In others the idea may prevail that any handyman will make a good school bus driver. All applicants or possible bus drivers should be considered on the basis of qualifications, and the administrator should make his recommendations on the basis of his evaluation. The school

(Continued on page 80)

What's Ahead for Educational Television?



by Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television

DUCATIONAL television is on the march. Although 242 television channels were set aside exclusively for the use of education by the FCC and made permanent in June 1953, 3 more station areas have, of necessity, already been addedone at Amherst, Mass., center for University of Massachusetts and Amherst College; another at North Adams, Mass., for the Williams College area; and a third at Bowling Green, Ohio, where the Bowling Green State University is located. There are now 45 applications filed with the FCC for educational channels, covering all areas of the United States. Of these, 29 construction permits have been granted and 4 stations are already on the air.

Stations now in operation are: WOI-TV, Iowa State College, Ames; KUHT, the University of Houston, Texas, with the Houston School District; KTHE, the Allan Hancock Foundation at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles; and WKAR-TV, Michigan State College, Lansing. The first two are in the VHF band; the second two are in the UHF band and are therefore limited to reception by new-type receivers or UHF adapters. Although this may appear to be a disadvantage at first glance, it may easily prove to be a blessing, since both schools and individuals now finding attractive programs available for their

use will equip with the best and most modern sets while programs can be beamed especially for them.

Stations planning to open this spring are: KETC, St. Louis Educational TV Commission; KQED, Bay Area Television Association at San Francisco; WHA-TV, at the University of Wisconsin, Madison; WCET, Greater Cincinnati TV Foundation, Ohio; WQED, Metropolitan Pittsburgh TV Station, Pennsylvania; KUOW, University of Washington, Seattle; and WOSU-TV, Ohio State University, Columbus.

Stations planning to begin operation in the fall and winter of 1954 are located at Washington, D. C., Boston, Chicago, Memphis, Nashville, Birmingham Sacramento, San Diego, Denver, Jacksonville, Miami, Atlanta, Savannah, Athens, Manhattan (Kansas), Ann Arbor, New Brunswick (N. J.), Chapel Hill, Raleigh, and Greenshoro (N. C.), Oklahoma City and Norman, Providence, San Antonio, Milwaukee, and San Juan.

This is a happy picture for educational television, but it does not represent adequate facilities for nationwide use of television in the classroom nor even for adult education. All the 245 channels assigned, and possibly more, will be needed to accomplish the objective. Already more than 100 of our universities are putting TV programs on the

air, and 79 school systems are preparing programs which are received daily in the schools from standard commercial stations. More than half of all the programs originating from schools in 1953 were to show the public what was happening in their schools. The number will not diminish in 1954 but will rather be supplemented by many more teacher programs to be viewed both in the classroom and in the home.

Great growth of educational stations will occur in 1954, but even greater growth should take place in programing for essential needs. The standard commercial TV networks have sensed this and are adding many new programs of high quality for adult listening and viewing of wide general interest in the fields of art, science, the literature of the drama, news comment, forum discussions, and direct adult education. Programs include performances like Hedda Gabler, Richard II (2 hours' duration with Maurice Evans in the title role), and the dramatization of Dreiser's An American Tragedy under the title A Place in the Sun. The dramatizations of history, such as the Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, the Trial of Marie Antoinette, the Ordeal of Tom Paine, are all to be found on "You Are There!" (Sunday evening series on CBS). The Alfred P. Sloan Foundation's American Inventory is an inventory of what is hap-

pening in our country in the field of general culture. Adventure, a natural history series from the Museum of Natural History, New York, presents programs for both young and old, on Sunday afternoons. Excursion, another youth program of the Ford Foundation on NBC with Burgess Meredith as guide, comes earlier in the afternoon, followed by Omnibus, the Ford Foundation "Cultural variety show" on CBS. Education spoofed by Mr. Peepers and Our Miss Brooks, complicated by Meet Mr. McNutley on Thursday evenings, and soon to be dignified again with Halls of Ivy, where Ronald Coleman plays a lovable college "prexy." Johns Hopkins Science Review, now heard and seen on Wednesday evenings, Bishop Fulton J. Sheen on Tuesdays, Robert Montgomery Presents on Mondays along with Studio One, See It Now with Edward R. Murrow on Tuesdays, and another clever Murrow program Person to Person on Fridays leave Saturday night the only night free of intentional education for everyone's enjoyment of Your Show of Shows. The "brainy Sunday afternoon" is available rain or shine on television with programs described.

In California, a series by Professor Frank Baxter on Shakespeare has developed an outstanding audience at 11:00 a. m. Saturday mornings, and in Chicago, Zoo Parade and Mr. Wizard hold vast TV audience appeal, almost as great as Ding Dong School holds for preschool youngsters and their mothers every week-day morning. These, then, are the principal educational programs already available to the public that has now purchased nearly 30 million TV receivers.

Educational TV stations opening this year will bring many new different programs to the viewer. In the first place, many Telecourses in university extension either for credit toward a degree or for certification in the field of psychology, philosophy, art, music, history, economics, anthropology, languages, and literature have been added.

The four educational stations now on the air show a trend toward the practical type of program which meets the needs of its audience. Although there are 16 telecourses on KUHT, Houston, Texas, there are also programs of news "in focus," portrait photography, household chemistry, and music understanding. An eperimental theatre and a university forum are also in-

cluded. WOI-TV at Ames, Iowa, does a complete series of daily programs for inschool viewing called Schooltime as well as special programs in agricultural helps, home economics, and health and welfare. KTHE. Los Angeles, has startled the community with a remarkable children's participation program called Let's Play Like, to develop creative and dramatic skills in youngsters. WKAR-TV, in a 6-hour daily schedule, presents a new idea in interpretive reporting of the general news, including a program on campus news highlights for the benefit of the "extended" campus audience. There are also programs for the farmer, for the businessman, for the housewife, for the youthful audience, for the art and music lover, and for the "gadgeteer," who loves to improve his home, develop his hobbies, and continue his education. The trend, then, is definitely toward the practical in the public service type of program. This requires constant vigilance in gauging public needs and evaluating response. Thomas Wolfe, when he was a professor at New York University, called this "utility culture." but later on, admitted its value.

The trend in school programing is definitely toward a close tie-up with the curriculum. In San Diego, for example, the school programs are all planned to fit curriculum needs and are worked out under the supervision of Robert Burgert, the director of instructional aids, as director and coordinator of all programs reaching pupils in the schools. The 3-way lesson of 1) preparation, 2) viewing, 3) follow-up is a prescribed practice taken over from the radio and motion-picture lesson techniques. Subjects in *Iowa Schooltime* include health (junior high), science (elementary), social studies (grades 5, 6, 7) guidance (high school), Iowa history (grades 5–8), and art (elementary).

A philosophy of approach and practice is slowly being evolved by educational television. This past summer there were two national meetings, one at Lincoln Lodge, Wis., and the other at Gunflint Lodge, Minn., to help develop such thinking. Both conferences were sponsored by the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, with the cooperation of the Joint Committee on Educational Television. However, "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," and ideas must be translated into live programs. The \$88,000 in subvention of funds through the Educational TV and Radio Program Center at Ann Arbor for the production of programs is only the beginning of help which must be given to bring ideas into programs. The NAEB, through its Jefferson Heritage and Ways of Mankind series for radio, has demonstrated that it can do this job well, and so much is expected in tailor-made programs.

What's ahead for educational television? Great growth and wide public acceptance of programs made to fit the needs of viewers.



KUHT, University of Houston, presents an agricultural program on the value of coastal grasses heretofore largely disregarded as a natural feed crop.

EDUCATION OF NEGROES

Segregation Issue Before the Supreme Court

by Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner

FOR the benefit of persons who may not be familiar with the circumstances surrounding and leading up to the problem of school segregation now before the Supreme Court, a few historical facts are presented here.

In 17 States ¹ and the District of Columbia, school segregation of Negroes and white persons has been required by State law. Segregation has been the general pattern in practically every phase of life since the close of the Civil War. In certain other States ² partial segregation has been practiced under the protection of permissive legislation.

Segregation was an important issue even in the early beginning of the education of Negroes. Because of the tense feelings during and immediately following Reconstruction, and because of the educational limitations of Negroes, many persons believed that the only way their education could be assured was in separate schools.

The Freedmen's Bureau, established by Congress in 1866, considered education of Negroes to be one of its major responsibilities. What it did in establishing free public schools for them later served as a foundation for the public school systems established in the South by the Reconstruction governments. During this period free education was not popular for anyone, and many whites opposed the education of Negroes because of the political implications, their dislike of the sponsoring Bureau, their disbelief in the educability of Negroes, the poverty of the States, and other attitudes engendered by the slave system. In spite of these hindrances, Negroes had achieved a

One of the most far-reaching and significant issues before the Supreme Court is whether or not the Constitution permits State and local school systems to segregate white and Negro pupils. Because of the possible impact which the cases will have on American education, and because they are of particular concern to students and educators, School Life herewith presents the first of a series of factual articles on the issues now before the Court.

semblance of educational equality by the end of Reconstruction in 1875. There was even considerable sentiment for mixed schools, and they actually existed for a short time in a few places. Even at that early date, the theory of "separate but equal" was challenged.

"SEPARATE BUT EQUAL" THEORY

Litigation challenging segregation and discrimination started soon after the Civil War and has continued intermittently until the present time. One writer has calculated that there were 44 cases reported between 1865 and 1935 which challenged segregation; and 28 cases were brought to remedy specific inequalities. Until the present cases, however, most of the litigation, while suggesting interest in the eradication of segregation, has concentrated on the elimination of discrimination under the doctrine of "separate but equal." This doctrine was enunciated by the U. S. Supreme Court in

1896, in the famous case of Plessy v. Ferguson.

Counsel for the plaintiffs in the present cases, as well as the Attorney General, contend that the pattern of discrimination prevailing during the last half century was set by the sanction which the Supreme Court gave to the policy of segregation through the *Plessy v. Ferguson* (163 U. S. 537) decision, and by the continual acceptance by the Court of the interpretations of "equality" between the races given by the local school officials.

CONCEPT OF EQUALITY CHANGES

The way was prepared for this attack when the Supreme Court began to define the personal character of the relief sought. In reference to this, the Attorney General's brief in the instant cases said that:

"The judicial inquiry " " " is not simply to determine whether there is equality as between schools: the Constitution requires that there be equality as between persons. The Fourteenth Amendment compels a State to grant the benefits of public education to all its people equally, without regard to differences of race or color. This has not always been as clear as it is today." This principle was set forth in 1938 in Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada, 305 U. S. 337. Three other cases in which

⁶ U. S. Department of Justice, Supplemental Brief for the U. S. on Reargument, in the Supreme Court of the United States, October Term, 1953, p. 143.

⁵Leflar, Robert A., and Davis, Wylie H., "Public School Segregation," Harvard Law Review, January 1954, Vol. 67, No. 3, p. 418.

[&]quot;Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia.

² Arizona, Illinois, Indiana, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

the Court affirmed this principle, with certain variations followed: Sipuel v. Board of Regents, 332 U. S. 631; Sweatt v. Painter, 339 U. S. 629; and McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents, 339 U. S. 637.

The five cases now pending before the Court purport to present squarely the issue whether segregation in public schools constitutes a denial to Negroes (as persons) the equal protection of the laws. These cases, which were argued before the Supreme Court in December 1952 and reargued in December 1953, are:

No. 1 (8)^a Oliver Brown, et al., Appellants v. Board of Education of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kansas, et al.

No. 2 (101) Harry Briggs, Jr., et al., Appellants v. R. W. Elliott, et al.

No. 4 (191) Dorothy E. Davis, et al., Appellants v. County School Board of Prince Edward County, Virginia, et al.

No. 8 (413) Spottswood Thomas Bolling, et al., Petitioners v. C. Melvin Sharpe, et al.

No. 10 (448) Francis B. Gebhart, et al., Petitioners v. Ethel Louise Belton, et al.

SUPREME COURT ORDERS CASES RESTORED TO DOCKET

The 1953 rearguments were in response to questions asked by the Court in its order of June 1953, which follow:

"Each of these cases is ordered restored to the docket and is assigned for reargument on Monday, October 12, next. In their briefs and on oral argument counsel are requested to discuss particularly the following questions insofar as they are relevant to the respective cases:

1. What evidence is there that the Congress which submitted and the State legislatures and conventions which ratified the Fourteenth Amendment contemplated or did not contemplate, understood or did not understand, that it would abolish segregation in public schools?

2. If neither the Congress in submitting nor the States in ratifying the Fourteenth Amendment understood that compliance with it would require the immediate abolition of segregation in public schools, was it nevertheless the understanding of the framers of the Amendment

(a) that future Congresses might, in the

exercise of their power under Sec. 5 of the Amendment, abolish such segregation, or

(b) that it would be within the judicial power, in light of future conditions, to construe the Amendment as abolishing such segregation of its own force?

3. On the assumption that the answers to questions 2 (a) and (b) do not dispose of the issue, is it within the judicial power, in construing the Amendment, to abolish segregation in public schools?

 Assuming it is decided that segregation in public schools violates the Fourteenth Amendment.

(a) would a decree necessarily follow providing that, within the limits set by normal geographic school districting, Negro children should forthwith be admitted to schools of their choice, or

(b) may this Court, in the exercise of its equity powers, permit an effective gradual adjustment to be brought about from existing segregated systems to a system not based on color distinctions?

5. On the assumption on which questions 4 (a) and (b) are based, and assuming further that this Court will exercise its equity powers to the end described in question 4 (b),

(a) should this Court formulate detailed decrees in these cases;

(b) if so what specific issues should the decrees reach;

 (c) should this Court appoint a special master to hear evidence with a view to recommending specific terms for such decrees;

(d) should this Court remand to the courts of first instance with directions to frame decrees in these cases, and if so, what general directions should the decrees of this Court include and what procedures should the courts of first instance follow in arriving at the specific terms of more detailed decrees.

The Attorney General of the United States is invited to take part in the oral argument and to file an additional brief if he so desires."

Answers to questions 1 and 2

(1) "The Congressional history of the Fourteenth Amendment shows that the Amendment was proposed and debated as part of a broad and continuing program to establish full freedom and legal equality for Negroes. Many in the Congress which considered the Thirteenth Amendment under-

stood it to abolish not only slavery but also its concomitant legal discriminations. This understanding rested on a belief that that Amendment had made the Negro an indistinguishable part of the population and hence entitled to the same rights and privileges under the laws as all others. The enactment of the Black Codes in the Southern states made it obvious, however, that additional protection by the national government was required.

" * * * While the legislative history does not conclusively establish that the Congress which proposed the Fourteenth Amendment specifically understood that it would abolish racial segregation in the public schools, there is ample evidence that it did understand that the Amendment established the broad constitutional principle of full and complete equality of all persons under the law, and that it forbade all legal distinctions based on race or color. Concerned as they were with securing to the Negro freedmen these fundamental rights of liberty and equality, the members of Congress did not pause to enumerate in detail all the specific applications of the basic principle which the Amendment incorporated into the Constitution. There is some evidence that this broad principle was understood to apply to racial discriminations in education, and that it might have the additional effect of invalidating state laws providing for racial segregation in the public schools.

(2) "There is a paucity of available evidence as to the understanding of the State legislatures which ratified the Amendment, in part because of the almost complete absence of records of debates, in part perhaps because their function was to accept or reject a proposal rather than to draft one.

". . . The available materials are too sparse, and the specific references to education too few, to justify any definite conclusion that the State legislatures which ratified the Fourteenth Amendment understood either that it permitted or that it prohibited separate schools.

(3) "There is no direct evidence at the time of the adoption of the Amendment that its framers understood specifically that future Congresses might, in the exercise of their power under section 5, abolish segregation in the public schools. They clearly understood, however, that Congress would have the power to enforce the broad guarantees of the Amendment, and the Amendment

⁶ Numbers in parentheses refer to the number of the case in 1952.

was deliberately framed so as to assure that the rights protected by section 1 could not be withdrawn or restricted by future Congresses.

"Elsewhere in this brief we have quoted at length from the opinions of this Court, extending over a period of more than three-quarters of a century, which show a consistent recognition that the Fourteenth Amendment is to be construed liberally so as to carry out the great and pervading purpose of its framers to establish complete equality for Negroes in the enjoyment of fundamental human rights and to secure those rights against enforcement of legal distinctions based on race or color."

Answer to question 3

"IT IS WITHIN THE JUDICIAL POWER, IN CONSTRUING THE FOUR-TEENTH AMENDMENT, TO DECIDE THAT RACIAL SEGREGATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL.

"The judicial function here is not to review the wisdom of a state's policy favoring segregation in education but rather to determine its constitutional power to adopt such a policy. Such a task clearly falls within the traditional authority and competence of this Court.

"[In] Euclid v. Amber Realty Co., 272 U. S. 365, 387, where the Court observed that the application of constitutional guarantees 'must expand or contract to meet the new and different conditions which are constantly coming within the field of their operation. In a changing world, it is impossible that it should be otherwise.'

"The question now before the Court is not whether conditions existing when these separate school systems began may have justified them, practically and legally. The question, rather, is whether under the far different conditions existing today, a legal requirement that colored children must attend public schools where they are segregated solely because of their color deprives them of their constitutional right to equality in the enjoyment of public educational advantages and opportunities."

Answers to question 4

"IF THE COURT HOLDS THAT RACIAL SEGREGATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL, IT HAS POWER TO DIRECT SUCH RELIEF AS IN ITS JUDGMENT WILL BEST SERVE THE INTERESTS OF JUSTICE IN THE CIRCUMSTANCES.

"The shaping of relief in the present cases involves reference to three fundamental principles governing the granting of judicial remedies, each of which is to some degree applicable here: (1) One whose legal rights have been and continue to be violated is entitled to relief which will be effective to redress the wrong. If a court finds that certain conduct is unlawful, it normally enters a decree enjoining the continuation of such conduct. (2) A court of equity is not inflexibly bound to direct any particular form of relief. It has full power to fashion a remedy which will best serve the ends of justice in the particular circumstances. (3) In framing its judgment a court must take into account not only the rights of the parties but the public interest as well. The needs of the public, and the effect of proposed decrees on the general welfare, are always of relevant, if not paramount, concern to a court of justice.

"The principal problem here, as so often in the law, is to find a wise accommodation of these principles as applied to the facts presented. 'The essential consideration is that the remedy shall be as effective and fair as possible in preventing continued or future violations of the (law) in the light of the facts of the particular case.' United States v. National Lead Co., 332 U. S. 319, 335. But, whatever the difficulties of determining what remedy would be most effective and fair in redressing the violation of constitutional right presented in these cases, we believe there can be no doubt of the Court's power to grant such remedy as it finds to be most consonant with the interests of justice.

"" " For these plaintiffs the remedy of immediate admission to nonsegregated schools is an indispensable corollary of the constitutional right, for to recognize a litigant's right without affording him an adequate remedy for its violation is to nullify the value of the right.

"On the other hand, it is also true that the constitutional issues presented to the Court transcend the particular cases and complainants at bar, and in shaping its decrees the Court may take into account such public considerations as the administrative obstacles involved in making a general transition throughout the country from existing segregated school systems to ones not based

on color distinctions. If the Court should hold in these cases that racial segregation per se violates the Constitution, the immediate consequence would be to invalidate the laws of many States which have been based on the contrary assumption. Racial segregation in public schools is not an isolated phenomenon limited to the areas involved in the cases at bar, and it would be reasonable and in accord with its historic practices for the Court in fashioning the relief in these cases to consider the broad implications and consequences of its ruling."

Answers to question 5

"IF THE COURT HOLDS THAT RACIAL SEGREGATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL, IT SHOULD REMAND THESE CASES TO THE LOWER COURTS WITH DIRECTIONS TO CARRY OUT THIS COURT'S DECISION AS SPEEDILY AS THE PARTICULAR CIRCUMSTANCES PERMIT.

"This question is predicated on three assumptions: (1) that the Court will hold that racial segregation in public schools is unconstitutional; (2) that it can permit an effective gradual adjustment to be brought about from existing segregated school systems to ones not based on color distinctions; and (3) that the Court will exercise its equity powers to that end. The question which remains to be considered, therefore, is how the decrees in the present cases should be framed so as to give effective force to the Court's ruling on the constitutional question and at the same time to permit orderly solution of the problems which may arise in eliminating existing racial segregation in public schools.

"A. Obstacles to Integration. In carrying out an adjustment from existing segregated school systems to new ones not based on color distinctions, the difficulties likely to be encountered fall into two groups: (1) those of an administrative nature; (2) those deriving from the fact that racial segregation in public schools has been in existence for many years in a large part of the country.

"B. The Decrees. On the basis of the foregoing, the considerations which appear to be relevant to the framing of the decrees in the present cases may briefly be summarized as follows:

"1. The constitutional right involved in these cases is 'personal and present.'

(Continued on page 78)

Trends in Public High School Reorganization

by Walter H. Gaumnitz, Specialist for Small and Rural High Schools

CECONDARY EDUCATION in the United States is rapidly changing in many ways. One of the most significant reasons for change is the number of youth of high school age to be served. In 1920 only about 2 million of the youth of high school age were attending these schools; by 1952 this number had increased to well over 7½ million. In 1920 only about 30 percent of the youth (14–17) were in high school; by 1950 this percentage had increased to 75.

One of the changes which has accompanied this growth in the number of youth attending high school is the shift from the 8-4 plan of organization to reorganized high schools including some form of junior high school. This change is graphically shown in figures 1 and 2. The former shows the number of regularly and reorganized high schools at various intervals from 1920 to 1952; the latter depicts this change by enrollments in various types of high schools-separately organized junior high schools, separately organized senior high schools, junior-senior or undivided high schools, and regularly organized (4 year) high schools.

In 1920 over 90 percent of all public high schools were the regular 4-year type, following a 7-year or an 8-year elementary school (figure 1). In that year high schools designated "regular" enrolled more than four-fifths (83.4 percent) of all the pupils attending public day high schools (figure 2). Gradually the proportion of 4-year regular high schools has decreased until in 1952 a little more than 3 out of 7 (42.8 per-

cent) were of this type; the enrollments decreased to about one-fourth (25.2 percent) of all secondary school pupils.

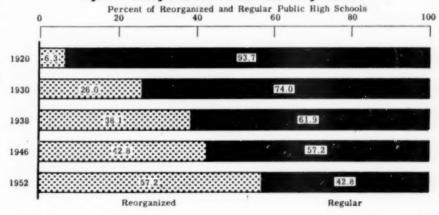
Separately organized "reorganized" schools

The number of pupils enrolled in separately organized junior high schools which was below 40,000 in 1920 rose to over 1,400,000 pupils in 1938. By 1946 this number had dropped slightly to 1,275,000, but by 1952 the number had risen to well above 11/5 million. Of all the pupils attending public secondary schools, the separately organized junior high schools enrolled the following percentages (figure 2): 1.0 in 1920, 18.6 in 1946, and 19.8 in 1952. The separately organized senior high school rose steadily from fewer than 20,000 pupils (0.9 percent) in 1920 to more than 11/2 million pupils (19.9 percent) in 1952. But the greatest gains in the number of pupils attending the reorganized high schools are shown by the junior-senior or undivided type of high school. In these the enrollment rose from about 276,000 (13.8 percent) in 1920 to about 1,800,000 in 1938 and 1946 (24.4 and 26.1 percent). During the last 10 years the enrollment in this type

of high school has risen by nearly another million, and now (1952) stands at 2,700,000 (35.1 percent). Of course if the numbers of pupils enrolled in the separately organized junior high schools and senior high are combined, the total exceeds 3 million. These companion schools, therefore, serve more youth (39.7 percent) than either the 4-year high schools or the junior-senior high schools.

The statistics show that large increases have taken place in all types of reorganized high schools over the 32-year period and that decreases have occurred in the regularly organized high schools. This has been true both of the number of schools and the pupils enrolled in them. The greatest growth in the reorganization of the public secondary schools has come since 1946. In that year nearly 3 out of 5 (57.2 percent) of the schools were organized as regular 4-year high schools. By 1952 only 42.8 percent of the schools were of this type. If all the reorganized high schools were compared with the regular 4-year high schools, the percentages would be exactly reversed during this 6-year period. In terms of pupils attending the reorganized high schools, the halfway mark was reached more than 20 years earlier.

Figure 1. Reorganization Trends-Public High Schools



¹ Detailed data by States available from "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52," Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52, Chapter V, and from Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Hull, J. Dan, "Junior High School Versus the Traditional (8–4) High School Organization," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 38: 112–121, March 1954.

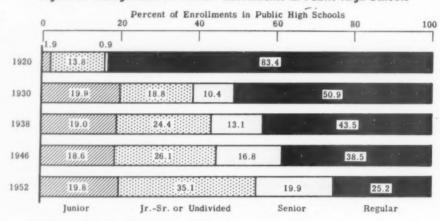
Closer study of the recent statistics published by the Office of Education reveals that the reorganization of the secondary schools has been much more popular in the larger population centers than in rural areas. Of the 15,975 public secondary schools located in centers under 2,500 in 1952, 53 percent were of the 4-year type and 47 percent were reorganized; of those in centers of 10,000 or more, only 15 percent were of the 4-year type and 85 percent reorganized. For the smaller urban centers, the percentages were 29.6 and 70.4 respectively. Of the 2,517,088 pupils attending the secondary schools located in rural centers, 37.2 percent were in the regular 4-year schools and 62.8 percent in the reorganized high schools; of those in the secondary schools of cities above 10,000, 17.1 percent attended 4-year schools and 82.9 percent attended reorganized schools.

In tracing the enrollment shifts from the regularly organized to the reorganized high schools, the reader should bear in mind that a good many of the pupils now in grades 7 and 8 of the reorganized high schools were formerly bracketed with 7th and 8th grade pupils of the elementary schools organized as parts of the 8-4 plan. Statistics show that in 1920, 95.2 percent of all 7th and

8th graders attended the elementary schools as parts of the 8-4 plan; by 1952 this percentage had been reduced to 46.1 of all 7th and 8th grade pupils. The data for reorganized high schools show that in 1920 only 4.8 percent of the pupils in these grades attended some form of junior-high school; the percentage attending such schools rose rapidly to 38.2 in 1938 and to 53.9 in 1952.

Whatever may be the causes for the rapid shift now apparently taking place from the regular 4-year high school to the reorganized high schools, and regardless of whether the outcome is good or bad, this change in American public secondary education must be recognized as a fact. What is more important this change should challenge the leaders to devise programs, administrative procedures, and staffs which will provide better instruction for young adolescents than have thus far been developed. This challenge must stimulate sound research and experimentation. In short, it must bring about real improvement in secondary education rather than a mere change in organization.

Figure 2. Reorganization Trends—Enrollments in Public High Schools



Education of Negroes

(Continued from page 76)

"2. On the other hand, the effects of a decision holding school segregation to be unconstitutional would not be limited to the areas and parties involved in the cases at bar.

"3. In some places (such as the District of Columbia, Kansas, and Delaware) change-over to a nonsegregated system should be a relatively simple matter, requiring perhaps only a few months to accomplish.

"4. Despite a decision by this Court that racial segregation in public schools is unconstitutional, there will still remain many areas in which, as a practical matter, the schools will be attended by at least a preponderance of children of one color.

"5. There is no single formula or blueprint which can be uniformly applied in all areas where existing school segregation must be ended. "6. The burden of (a) showing that, in the particular circumstances, a decree requiring the immediate admission of the plaintiffs to nonsegregated schools would be impracticable or inequitable, and, in that event, of (b) proposing, for the court's approval, an effective program for accomplishing transition to a nonsegregated system as soon as practicable, should rest on the defendants."

CONCLUSION

"In response to the questions stated in the Court's order directing reargument of these cases, the United States respectfully submits (1) that the primary and pervasive purpose of the Fourteenth Amendment, as is shown by its history and as has repeatedly been declared by this Court, was to secure for Negroes full and complete equality before the law and to abolish all legal distinctions based on race or color; (2) that the legislative history of the Amendment in Congress is not conclusive; (3) that the available materials relating to the ratification proceedings in the various state legislatures are too scanty and incomplete, and

the specific references to school segregation too few and scattered, to justify any definite conclusion as to the existence of a general understanding in such legislatures as to the effect which the Amendment would have on school segregation; (4) that it is within the judicial power to direct such relief as will be effective and just in climinating existing segregated school systems and (5) that if the Court holds that laws providing for separate public schools for white and colored children are unconstitutional, it should remand the instant cases to the lower courts with directions to carry out the Court's decision as expeditiously as the particular circumstances permit. * * * * *

Both lawyers and laymen have attempted to conjecture what kind of decision or decisions the Court will hand down. Whatever it is, there will be many questions and problems that must be faced, not only by school people but also by citizens generally. Some of these questions and problems will be considered in subsequent articles in this series.

Educational Partners: Turkey and America

by Ellsworth Tompkins, Specialist for Large High Schools

A GROWING Turkish-American partnership in education is indicated by the recent arrival of ten Turkish high school principals and teachers in Washington. They were on their way to the University of Illinois to study secondary education for 1 year. At Urbana they will have seminars with professors of the College of Education; they will visit schools in various part of the country. In addition, they will attend and take part in State and national educational meetings during their visit.

Commissioner of Education Samuel Miller Brownell greeted them at an Office of Education reception and spoke of the need for educational cooperation between nations. He pointed out the essential characteristics of school organization in America, in which control of schools and their programs is developed at the local and State level. Dr. Fehmi Nuza, Counselor of the Turkish Embassy in Washington, responded to the Commissioner's greeting and expressed the gratitude of the Turkish Government for the educators' visit.

The Ford Foundation has appropriated about \$40,000 for the travel and study expense of the group, and the Government of Turkey is contributing approximately \$18,000 for their daily expenses. The project is not costing the American taxpayer any money at all.

The Ministry of Education of Turkey plans to establish pilot or experimental high schools in Istanbul, Ankara, or Izmir after the group has observed American secondary education at first hand, using the members of the group as teachers and consultants in the new-type schools. It is anticipated that a similar group of principals and teachers will come to America in September 1954 and that the pilot schools will be established for an 8-year period beginning in September 1955.

Closer educational cooperation between Turkey and America is a natural outgrowth of the close friendship developing between the two nations in economic, agricultural, and military affairs. Previously, Turkey has concentrated its international educational efforts to the sending of Turkish uni-

versity students to this country for collegiate and advanced study. During 1952-53 approximately 900 Turkish young men and women were enrolled in American universities in various fields of study, and almost all of them were maintained at the expense of the Government of Turkey. Even though this policy will be continued, the new emphasis of team study by experienced elementary and secondary school leaders will be gradually increased. Last year 25 rural elementary teachers from Turkey studied elementary education at the University of Florida under the direction of Dr. Kate Wofford, who had spent 1951-52 in surveying rural schools in Turkey.

Secondary schools in Turkey comprise junior high or middle schools (orta), senior high schools (lise), girls' technical schools, and boys' trade schools. In that country it is compulsory for children to attend elementary but not secondary schools. As a result, the enrollment in high schools represents only a small part of all youth of high school age.

The ratio of elementary school enrollment to secondary school enrollment in Turkey is in the neighborhood of 17 to 1: in the United States the ratio is a little more than 4 to 1. The total Turkish secondary school enrollment (orta and lise only) is about 91,000 as against the total American enrollment of about 7 million. Of course, the total population of Turkey is about 22 million compared with our 161 million. If a similar proportion of boys and girls were enrolled in Turkish high schools as are enrolled in American high schools, Turkey would have about one million youth in junior and senior high schools. These statistics emphasize one facet of Turkey's problem in secondary education: the need for extending it to a greater proportion of normal youth of high school age.



Left to right—Huseyin Goksel, Principal, Odemis, Izmir; Kemal Ozinonu, Teacher, Gaziantep; Ellsworth Tompkins, Office of Education; Yildiz Ugurtas, Teacher, Eskisehir; Commissioner Brownell; Fehmi Nuza, Counselor, Turkish Embassy, Washington, D. C.; Macit Kiliceri, Principal, Corum; Hasene Oksuzoglu, Teacher, Istanbul; Thomas E. Benner, University of Illinois, project coordinator; Lamia Ozsoy, Teacher and translator, Ankara; Omer Bayin, Principal, Trabzon; Nihat Ali U:urcu, Chief, Turkish Economic Mission, Washington, D. C.; Ibrahim Paro, Professor, Ankara. Ibrahim Ozgentas, Teacher, Koyna, and Ahmet Galfas, Assistant Principal, Malatya, are not shown here.

Another and equally difficult problem concerns curriculum. Patterned after the French middle school and lycée, the curriculum is rigid. With a minor exception, all pupils are required to take the same subjects in junior and senior high school. As a result, the failure rate of students is excessive, sometimes running up to 40 percent of a class. It is recognized that rigid curriculums and high retardation go together, but the retardation can hardly be diminished until the curriculum acquires some degree of flexibility, that is, unless there is some attempt to match more elective subjects, still to be provided, with the capacities and preferences of students.

A third general problem relates to teaching methods. The writer visited 99 schools in many cities in Turkey and sat in on hundreds of classes in the subjects offered. He observed classes taught by the methods that might be termed functional, demonstration, or workshop. Sometimes classes were divided into small groups with selected students serving as teacher's helpers; on occasion students performed demonstrations, or served as chairmen for the class. On the whole, however, the majority of teachers lectured from the book and used little variety in teaching method. Consequently, the spotlight frequently focused on the teacher rather than on the student. A reason for this condition may be that high school teachers are prepared in the University of Ankara or the University of Istanbul without ever having had an adequate course in methods or practice-experience in teaching under an experienced teacher. Because of the sameness of teaching method in a great many classes, students were frequently stimulated to memorization of facts rather than active

The Ministry of Education in Turkey is well aware of these and other pressing problems in secondary education. And it is determined to do something about them as soon as it can. That is why Resat Tardu, former Undersecretary of the National Ministry, and his successor Osman Faruk Verimer desire to establish a close working relationship with American educators. By visits to schools in this country and study of educational conditions here. Turkish high school principals and teachers may be able to develop their own suggestions for diversifying the curriculums, enriching teaching methods, increasing high school enrollment, and decreasing the failure rate

of students. The Ministry is also eager to have the study groups look into the possibilities for establishing comprehensive junior high schools by combining the program of boys' technical schools with that of the academic junior high schools.

One factor in favor of desired functional change in Turkish secondary schools is the enthusiastic attitude of practically all Turks toward America and Americans. There probably are numerous reasons why the Turkish people like Americans, but it is not necessary at this point to analyze them. They exist; that is sufficient. Despite the fact that Turkish secondary schools for years have mirrored the traditional French lycée, there is increasing belief that exchange of educational personnel between Turkey and the United States will point the way to improvements in Turkish schools. A number of American educational specialists have visited Turkey in an attempt to understand better the school program there, and practically all of them have consulted with officials of the Turkish Ministry of Education and other school personnel. This has resulted in greater American understanding of Turkish schools and greater Turkish understanding of American schools. Actual visits by teams of teachers is the further step now being taken.

The Turkish educators, like the Turkish people in general, have a spirit of advancement in their blood. They want to try new and better things; they are determined to make Turkey one of the world's foremost nations in education as in other fields. The great glory of the Turkey that once was is being restored not through power alone but through enlightenment. One cannot visit Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara, Adana, Konya, Samsun, and other great cities without sensing this determination of the Turkish people and their government to forge ahead.

One sees in the eyes of the Turkish high school students a seriousness of purpose that is thrilling. They want education. The majority of teachers are as devoted a group as one may find anywhere. They too want an education for youth. The parents are equally devoted to the idea of education for their children. Many of them are members of PTA's and actively engage in seeking adequate educational services for youth.

There is no question that Turkish secondary education has a long way to go. That's true of many American high schools, too. But a first long step toward a better kind of high school has been taken with the initial visit of the team of ten Turkish high school principals and teachers to America. Next year more will come. In 1955 the Ministry of Education plans to begin some pilot secondary schools in which newer curriculums, newer teaching methods, newer teaching materials can be tested, accepted, retested, or discarded. Meanwhile, Turkey and America, thousands of miles apart, nourish an educational partnership that promises great things in the years ahead.

Pupil Transportation

(Continued from page 71)

board should employ on the basis of his recommendations. Second, there must be defensible standards for the position of school bus driver. Obviously, they cannot be so high as to rule out almost all probable applicants. They should be as high as they can be set to make the supply meet the demand. Less than one-third of the States now require an annual or more frequent physical examination of school bus drivers and probably few local units require it when the State does not. This kind of requirement, which certainly would constitute one kind of safeguard for the pupils, is not likely to affect very much the supply of school bus drivers. A third step in providing reliable school bus drivers is giving them essential training, which does not necessarily mean formal courses of training. It is obvious that the driver must know State and local laws, regulations, and ordinances which are related to his work. He must also know his responsibilities and what his relationships with pupils, parents, and school authorities are to be. It is also obvious that if he is to gain such knowledge without years of experience there must be some systematic method of providing it. There has been great activity in at least half of the States in the last 10 years in organizing school bus driver training activities. It is a recognized need, and they are moving as rapidly as possible. Finally, there must be constructive supervision of school bus dzivers. This has been almost nonexistent in thousands of local units. States can help with effective leadership, but here again the chief responsibility falls ultimately on the local unit.

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